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ABSTRACT

This handbook presents brief descriptions of various aspects of reading instruction and related lesson plans and class activities. Sections of the handbook discuss readiness, word recognition, developing vocabulary skills, reading in the content area, and reading comprehension. The handbook also offers brief biographies on Emmett Betts, Guy Bond, Theodore Clymer, Edward Dolch, Roger Farr, Arthur Gates, Kenneth Goodman, William S. Gray, Jr., Albert Josiah Harris, John Pikulski, and Romalda Spalding. Appendixes offer the Dolch Basic Sight Word List; a readability graph; advice for parents on reading with their children; advice for teachers on having a better "Book Week"; and a list of 13 tests and 7 professional reading materials for reading consultants. (RS)

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ED 409 547

ACCENTUATING LITERACY TODAY: A READING CONSULTANT'S HANDBOOK

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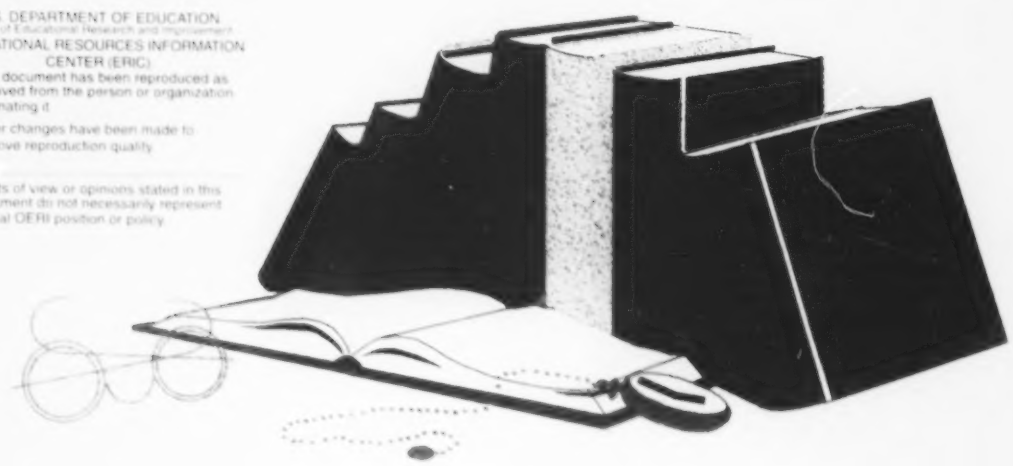

Northeast Louisiana University
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Accentuating Literacy Today: a Reading Consultant's Handbook

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Dedicated to Dr. Harry Miller

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Reading Readiness

When is a child ready for reading? This question has no decisive answer. A better question would be "When is this particular child ready for this particular reading program?" (Downing and Thackray, 1971, p.89). "Reading readiness is defined as the stage in development when, either through maturation or through previous learning, or both, the individual child can learn to read easily and profitably" (Downing and Thackray, 1971, p.10). The focus of this section of our Reading Consultant Handbook involves four essential factors that are used to determine reading readiness: physiological, environmental, emotional, and intellectual. Additionally, this section will contain suggestions for activities that will assist in preparing individuals for the reading process.

The first factor which effects reading readiness involves physiological characteristics. Harrison (1939) states in his book Reading Readiness that "Reading is an intellectual process, but in order to carry out that process in the normal way certain physical factors are necessary, so that we may say that in reality reading is dependent upon certain psycho-physical coordinations or is fundamentally a psycho-physical process" (p. 17). The physiological factors that influence reading readiness are speech, hearing, vision, general health and neurological development.

An individual's speech may hinder reading readiness if the speech involves stuttering, lisping, and/or slurring. Overall, individuals who can not speak clearly usually find phonetic analysis difficult.

Hearing is also an essential physiological factor related to reading readiness. An individual with normal auditory acuity can hear sounds covering a wide range of sound wave frequencies, distinguish between sounds of different frequencies, and can combine sound through the use of both ears. However, if an individual has impaired hearing, difficulties in reading could occur. An individual with below normal hearing does not receive a clear reception of sounds to copy and thus frequently mis-pronounces words.

"Hearing is important as a factor in reading readiness because the child first learns to attach meaning to printed symbols through the medium of spoken language" (Harrison, 1939, p.26).

An individual's vision is another physiological factor that influences reading readiness. Some studies have concluded that a relationship between poor vision and poor reading can occur. Such visual difficulties include ametropia (far-sightedness, near-sightedness, astigmatism), poor eye muscle balance, poor fusion (mental blending of the right and left eye images into one composite image), and poor depth perception (Downing and Thackray, 1971, p.31). Overall, an individual's eye sight should be tested and the necessary corrective measures followed before reading has begun.

General health can also effect one's reading readiness. General health involves good nutrition, freedom from toxins, and resistance to contagion. Good nutrition revolves around a well balanced diet. An individual with good nutrition will have a better chance of learning to read than the malnourished individual. "Good health will help him to resist contagion, a detriment to all types of learning if absence from school is necessary or if toxins resulting from disease leave him sluggish physically and mentally" (Harrison, 1939, p.20).

A proportion of individual's today have chronic difficulty in learning to read. This difficulty can also be attributed to neurological causes. Such neurological causes include symptoms which are related to brain-damage and dyslexia. Additionally, there are certain functions of the nervous system that are necessary for reading readiness. They are: (1) the ability to see likenesses and differences, (2) memory span of ideas (repeating fairly complex sentences without error), and (3) ability to do abstract thinking (Downing and Thackray, 1971, p.21-25).

The second factor which effects reading readiness involves environmental elements. Downing and Thackray (1971) state in their book, Reading Readiness, that "The cultural background of the home has been found to bear a relationship to reading

readiness and reading progress" (p. 35). Home background includes economic conditions, social experiences, speech and language patterns used in the home, attitudes toward reading and writing in the home, and quality of family life. All of these factors effect the child's ability to read in the sense that they may hinder or help the child create meaning from text through the child's experiences.

"Every child should be well developed emotionally before new and difficult learning, such as reading confronts him" (Harrison, 1939, p.27). Emotional development is another factor that influences reading readiness. Emotional development and personality development stem from the parental influences in the child's home. However, there are certain parental practices that can disturb a child emotionally, thus cause personality flaws that will hinder reading progress. Such practices, noted by Downing and Thackray (1971) are:

(1) over-protection from parents (A child who is overly dependent upon adults may feel that learning to read is an impossible task to undertake alone);

(2) poor training in the home (A child raised in an inconsistent and unpredictable home with unwise training methods, may find it difficult to make adjustments to the authoritative direction and systematic order of affairs at school);

(3) unfair pressure to read before a child is ready (Children placed in a situation where he or she is compared to an older sibling and pressured to achieve at the older siblings pace, may develop feelings of defeatism, resentment, or antagonism, that will prevent him/her from progressing in reading or from being ready to read) (p.45).

All of the above mentioned parental flaws may contribute to certain personality characteristics which interfere with the reading progress. Such personality characteristics, also noted by Downing and Thackray (1939), which may be exhibited by the child would include:

(1) extreme self-consciousness: sensitive, blushes easily, has curious and egocentric manners, low self-esteem;

(2) apt to submissiveness, indifferent, inattentive, seemingly lazy;

(3) withdrawn: day-dreaming, evasive reactions (avoidance), joins gangs, is constantly truant;

(4) nervous tension and actions such as nail biting, restlessness, and sleeplessness (p. 45).

Although only a small fraction of children are unready for reading because of emotional or personality disorders, the teacher must be observant enough to recognize the above characteristics and determine if the child should be referred to a school psychologist. If emotional problems are found to be the cause of reading failure then the remedy would be to reassess the child's level of readiness and the difficulty level of the activities the teacher is requiring him to accomplish. Given a fresh start, with easier material, self-confidence can be restored. This will greatly deter the cycle of failure in which the child would otherwise become entrapped.

"Since reading is an intellectual process, factors of intellectual development fostering reading readiness are of greater importance than any other group of factors" (Harrison, 1939, p. 5). Intellectual development can be categorized as dealing with maturation and experiences in both the home and school. Maturation affected by the development of the nervous system has already been noted under the psychological factors of reading readiness; however, such factors that effect the psychological development of a child also effect the intellectual development of a child. These factors involving the nervous system included: (1) ability to see likenesses and differences, (2) ability to remember word forms, (3) memory span of ideas, and (4) ability to do abstract thinking. The level of general mental ability is extremely important in the determination of reading readiness. However, researchers are unable to determine a definite 'teachable moment' in the mental development of a child.

With respect to training and experience in the home several elements are worthy of being noted as influencing reading readiness. The education and intelligence of the parents, interest and cooperation of the home, and breadth of experiences all influence a

child's capabilities.

With respect to training and experiences in school the length of time a child spends in the pre-primary period influences the child's reading readiness. Additionally, instruction influences a child tremendously. Instructional characteristics that influence reading readiness must promote the following: exposure to meaningful concepts, a wide range of spoken vocabulary, accurate enunciation and pronunciation, motivation toward reading, correct use of simple English sentences, practice with problem solving techniques, and ability to sequence events.

Overall, reading readiness can not be determined by one single factor. A combination of psychological, environmental, emotional, and intellectual factors must all be considered when determining the readiness of a child for reading.

Edith Downs

Sarah L. Sandidge

Reading Readiness Activities

1. Enter/Exit

Materials: Signs with ENTER and EXIT printed in large letters.

Purpose: To distinguish between words that will be familiar throughout life; to follow directions.

Procedure: Label 1 door ENTER and another door EXIT. If only one door is available then label each side. The leader directs students by saying "Janet open the door that says exit." "Larry walk to the door that says enter."

Variation: May use ON/Off switches, WALK/DON'T WALK, BOY/MEN, GIRL/WOMEN or any other opposite words that players will need to be familiar with.

2. Where Is It?

Materials: Balls, toys, chairs, large box, small sturdy table

Purpose: To learn concepts of behind, below, in, under, on, over, beside

Procedure: Place box and chair next to each other. Using objects direct the children where to place objects: place the car in the box, put the ball under the chair, sit on the table.

3. Hear the Sounds

Materials: tape recorder

Purpose: Learning to distinguish and/or copy sounds

Procedure: Record sounds that children are familiar with beforehand. Play the recorder and have students identify the sound and try to imitate it. Students may be able to tell what the sound means and where it can be heard.

4. More or Less---Potatoes

Materials: Real potatoes or cutouts of potatoes (may use other objects)

Purpose: To develop the concept of more or less.

Procedure: Begin with the rhyme "One potato, two potato, three potato, four....five potato, six potato, seven potato more...." Players should point to potatoes as they repeat the rhyme. Players close eyes or turn backs and one or more potatoes should be removed. Players must then tell if they have more or less than when they started.

5. Do You Look Alike?

Materials: Mirror, cut out pictures of people and animals from magazines

Purpose; Visual discrimination

Procedure: Distribute pictures or allow players to pull a picture from a secret box. Players then tell if they are like or different from their picture and describe differences/likenesses.

6. What Is It?

Materials: Pipe cleaners or other bendable material

Purpose: Letter recognition (capital letters)

Procedure: Give child/children at least 3 pipe cleaners. Make a letter and have student copy your form and then tell the name of the letter.

Variation: You may choose to call out letters and let students form the letter without copying.

7. Alphabet Hop:

Materials: Rubber ball, large alphabet cutouts

Purpose: Recognition of letters; gross motor skills

Procedure: Players stand on letters that have been placed on the floor. Leader stands in circle and throws/rolls the ball to a player. The player should then name his/her letter after receiving the ball. Players move to different letters during the game. You may use music during the game.

8. What is Real and What is Not

Materials: none

Purpose: To discriminate between reality and fantasy.

Procedure: The leader instructs players that they are to answer real or not real to statements. After giving several introductory statements to determine students understanding, the leader reads a very short story. Afterwards, repeat the story, stopping after each sentence and ask players if the sentences are real or not real.

Variation: Players may be allowed to use signals for real and not real

9. Were You Listening?

Materials: none

Purpose: To develop listening comprehension

Procedure: Leader reads a short story or sentences (depending on the age of the players). Afterward, ask players specific, factual questions about the story.

Edith Downs

Sarah L. Sandidge

Word Recognition

Word recognition is an important aspect of comprehension. Many other skills are continuously being developed, but research indicates reading is recognizing printed symbols. Word recognition facilitates those factors. Many researchers and opponents have suggested there are other skills that come before word recognition. This view is wrong and as we explore word recognition, we will show there is no hierarchy to reading instruction skills. The debate however; rages on and has a long history. Much of the debate is centered on what the definition of word recognition is and what role it plays in reading. We will begin with the debate over the definition.

In 1986 Roger Farr and Robert Carey wrote,

> The proliferation of word recognition skills results mainly from the variety of definitions. At issue in defining the potentially encompassing term is determining the relevance of grapheme/phoneme association and grapheme/meaning association--individually and interrelatedly--to the reading act. (Farr and Carey, 1986 p65)

Most define word recognition generally as the ability to apply verbal recognition for the printed symbol. For example, one such definition defines word recognition as, "the translation of print to press (Farr and Carey 1986)." This definition is all encompassing. It provides room to assume the phonics and sight word relations. Yet, there are those who believe the vocal aspects of word recognition is not necessary in recognizing symbols.

The other side of the issue believes strongly that word recognition must encompass both the recognizing of the word and the corresponding meaning of those words. Farr and Carey (1986) looked at the work of Caldwell, Nix and Peckham (1981).

Their views tied word recognition into the act of reading. This led Farr and Carey (1986) to conclude, "the ability to recognize words--whether to pronounce those words or to recognize meanings for them--as inseparable from the total thinking process we call reading."

The second portion of the debate dates back to the late 1800s. At that time there was ample research to conclude mature readers did not read by a letter by letter approach. Roger Farr and Nancy Roser looked at the research done by James Cattell in 1885. Cattell (1885) observed that words can read as fast as a single letter. Soon most realized a page can be read without every letter being read.

Many others debated the approach utilized. There are three predominant factions here. The first is referred to by Farr and Carey (1986) as the *bottom up*. They believe the focus should be on decoding and development. The belief that comprehension is the end result of interpretation of words. They also believe the reading is the act deciphering what the author intended the meaning of text to be interpreted as.

The second group consist of what Farr and Carey (1986) refer to as the *top down* approach. Their major difference from the above viewpoint is the belief that the reader holds the meaning of the text. Top down theorist hold that a reader refers to past experiences to help understand text. Comprehension is not a product of word recognition, but rather occurs as the reader draws on the past experiences to understand the text. They also support the view of the reader serving as an active part as described above.

The last set is the *interactive* theorist. This group combines comprehension and word recognition. Instead they insist on a compromise of the above two theories. The

role of word recognition is less than the *bottom up* would have it and the background experiences do not play as large of a role as is the case with the *top down* approach.

While the debate rages about how to view word recognition and role it plays in reading, there are several successful strategies or suggestions for its application.

Exercises in Word Recognition

Those readers who have a facility for quickly recognizing vocabulary and who are able to decode words with ease are the more capable readers. It is the job of educators to help students develop a basic sight vocabulary and to teach various skills that the student may use independently to analyze words and their meanings. Also, the importance of repetition of words and using them in context cannot be overemphasized.

Concrete nouns are the most easily recognized and learned of new words. In the classroom where common objects are labeled, students soon associate the written word to the meaning. When classmates wear nametags or have their names on their desks, the reader learns to read his name in context as well as those of his classmates.

A game that takes advantage of the tendency of the new reader to associate concrete objects or picture to the written word is "Concentration". Vocabulary words are printed on 3x5 cards, and each card as a corresponding "picture" card. All of the cards are dealt out and placed face-down on a table or on the floor. The students get to turn up only two cards per turn. If the word card and the picture card match, then the player may keep the cards and gets another turn. The player with the most cards at the end of the

game is the winner. This game may be adapted to a higher reading level by using definition cards instead of picture cards.

"Swat" is a more active game involving word recognition, although it may be modified for use in reinforcing math skills. All that is required for this game is the chalkboard and two fly swatters. A strip of tape is placed on the floor, and no player may step over that tape or points will be given to the OTHER team. The vocabulary words are written on the board. The teacher calls out the word definition, and the team player who "swats" the correct word first wins a point for his or her team. (In a math class, numbers are written on the board and the answer to a math problem is swatted.)

Since students learn by using all of their senses, a good multi-sensory approach involves having students write and say the word aloud as the word is written. This is repeated by having the student trace the word with the index finger and as the student repeats it aloud. For the more tactile learner, instead of using pencil and paper for this exercise, the teacher puts shaving cream on the students' desks so that they may write and say the words with the foam. A small amount of chocolate pudding placed in a sealed sandwich bag may also be used for this purpose. The students trace the words onto the plastic bag and do not actually touch the pudding.

Playing cards may be used to teach words in context. Write vocabulary words on old playing cards. Be sure to include all parts of speech in the decks. The players deal out eight cards and take turns placing their cards down as sentences. If a sentence cannot be made, the player draws cards until he can play a sentence. The player who runs out of cards first wins. Also, the cards' point values may be used to determine the winner. This is an excellent small-group activity.

Pocket charts may be used in a variety of ways. Vocabulary words written on cards are placed in the pockets, but one word has a "surprise" on the back of it. (This may be a removable sticker of a bee, a flower, etc.) Students are called upon to pick a word, say it, and use it in a sentence. Then back of the card is checked to see if the "surprise" is there. Whoever gets the surprise is the winner for that round.

In addition, the teacher may ask for student-generated sentences. The sentence is written on the board, and the students read the sentence aloud with the teacher. For example, a student may say, "The bird is in the tree." The teacher writes the sentence on the board, and the class reads it aloud with the teacher. Then the sentence is written on cardboard, cut into separate words, and placed into the pocket chart, but with the words scrambled. The students then rearrange the words back into the proper order. After that, key words may be taken away. "The bird is in the tree." becomes "The _____ is in the _____. Students then find other words to fill in the blanks:

The apple is in the basket.

The girl is in the desk.

The tree is in the park.

The word cards can be dealt out to the students, and then the students hold up their cards. The teacher calls upon a student who chooses classmates with words that will help him create a sentence. The boys and girls then line up to make a sentence while they hold their word cards. The may be repeated until all students have had a turn to pick out a sentence.

The learner's repeated use of a word allows him to recognize a word more easily. In journal writing, the teacher instructs the students to underline or highlight words from the class vocabulary wordbank. When the teacher sees that the words are used and spelled correctly, then the student earns a token, bonus point, or sticker for each word used properly.

Another, more active way to use words in context is "Talking Behind Your Back". The teacher scotch-tapes a clean sheet of paper on each student's back. Students then write notes to each other by writing on that person's sheet of paper. The notes MUST be signed, and vocabulary words used must be underlined. Students earn points for each vocabulary word used, but lose points for making any derogatory remarks. This activity is noisy, but receives good student response.

Shon Joseph and Marilyn Kay Douglas

Developing Vocabulary Skills

Vocabulary is an individual's repetoire of words that are readily recognized and used with their intended meaning. Vocabulary development is a fundamental element of the language arts. One must have an adequate vocabulary in order to consume and espouse information. Language arts consists of four areas. These are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Each one of these areas has its own associated vocabulary which combine to create the working vocabulary (Bond, Tinker, Wasson, & Wasson, 1994).

The listening vocabulary is the area that develops first. In general, the listening vocabulary is the dominant vocabulary of the child first entering school. This vocabulary entails the reception of meaning from spoken language (Bond, Tinker, Wasson, & Wasson, 1994).

The reading vocabulary is one's ability to interpret the meaning of printed symbols. One of the most important subskills in reading vocabulary is sight vocabulary. Development of one's reading vocabulary is perhaps the most difficult skill to acquire (Cheek, Flippo, & Lindsey, 1997). Perhaps this difficulty is a result of the complexity of written language.

Our speaking and writing vocabularies are our most important methods of expressing our ideas and opinions to others. We have a more limited repertoire of words in these vocabularies as compared to our listening and reading vocabularies. Even though these areas are more limited, they are in no way less important (Cheek, Flippo, & Lindsey, 1997).

An approach endorsed by Eldridge (1990) considers these four areas of vocabulary as a unit. This is termed the working vocabulary. Instructional methods in line with this approach would focus on the development of vocabulary relevant to the everyday lives of the students. This approach employs active participation, promotes generalization to diverse settings, and avoids the loss of learning as a result of rote memory strategies.

An old method of reading instruction was the story method. First, the teacher reads the story aloud. Then the students were instructed to read the story. This method focused on meaning. However, a disadvantage was the large amount of unknown words included in the stories. This disadvantage led to the use of controlled vocabulary. With the development of basal readers textbooks were sequenced according to grade level and the number of new words encountered (Alexander, 1988). Over the years a variety of innovative techniques have been established. The following is a brief list of some of the techniques available and often employed in vocabulary instruction. These methods should be used in conjunction with the philosophy of curriculum based assessment and programming on an individual basis (Choate, Emright, Miller, Poteet, & Rakes, 1995).

General Strategies

1. Determine student's present level of vocabulary development. Introduce new words that can be associated with students' prior knowledge.
2. Assign activities that encourage students to exercise and develop their listening, speaking, writing, and reading vocabularies. Create a classroom environment that promotes and facilitates active participation rather than passive involvement.
3. Work to ensure the generalization of vocabulary skills in settings outside of the classroom.
4. Teachers should strive to be appropriate models of vocabulary development and use.
5. Encourage the reading of a variety of materials in class as well as out of class.

*(from Cheek, Flippo, & Lindsey, 1997)

Specific Strategies

One of the most basic activities of vocabulary development is the learning of new word meanings. There are a variety of techniques to achieve this end. Teachers should experiment with a variety of techniques to determine which ones are most effective with the students. Listed below is a summary of some of these techniques.

New word technique. The teacher may either model a new word, provide synonyms, provide antonyms, or give the definition of the word. To assess whether or not students have a genuine understanding of the new word, the teacher first reads some phrases. Then, the teacher can ask a number of questions about whether or not the word in question is relevant to the passage. These questions could be answered either positively or negatively. Finally, the teacher should review the word and its meaning (Carnine, Silbert, & Kameenui, 1990).

Morphemic Analysis. Using this procedure the teacher instructs the students on the meaning of prefixes, suffixes, and word roots. This is a very effective method for developing strategies for word identification. This method can be used with children at all reading levels beyond the third grade level (Carnine, Silbert, & Kameenui, 1990).

Semantic mapping. This is an effective technique for teaching relationships among words. A new word is introduced and is recorded on the chalkboard or overhead projector for the students to see. Other visual aids and materials are also employed. Students are then instructed to think of as many related words as they can. This activity can be done individually or in groups. These related words are discussed in class and presented to the students. Next the class determines appropriate subheadings for each category related to the new word. Finally, the new word and the semantic map are reviewed by the class (Cheek, Flippo, & Lindsey, 1997; Johnson & Pearson, 1984).

Dictionary usage. The dictionary can provide a wealth of information to the student. It can tell a child how to pronounce the word; whether the word is a noun, adjective, adverb, or verb; and, most importantly, it provides the child with the meaning or meanings of the word. The acquisition of dictionary skills for the development and maintenance of a vocabulary is essential for being a good reader. An alternative approach to simply looking words up for definitions would be to ask interesting questions which may engage the curiosity of the child. For example, the teacher could ask questions similar to the following examples:

a. Could you ride in a smock?

b. which is a boat - a dingy or a dinghy?

c. Is a codling a small fish?

A multiple choice method can be used to help students identify words with multiple meanings. Children are given several sentences using the new word. They use the dictionary in order to determine the most appropriate meaning of a word (Johnson & Pearson, 1984).

Thesaurus usage. This method is not widely used in most classrooms. The thesaurus is very simple to use. It presents synonyms and antonyms of the word in question. The thesaurus can expand all areas of the child's vocabulary - listening, speaking, reading, and writing. An effective method employing thesaurus use would be in conjunction with semantic mapping or other similar procedures. For example, children list on a page, words that convey happy feelings, unpleasant feelings, ways to show feelings, and descriptions of feelings (Johnson & Pearson, 1984).

Ms. Giddy Gaddy

Sir John Plumfield

Reading in the Content Area

The purpose of content area reading is to promote the independent reading skills necessary for the successful completion of course requirements in various subject areas. Teaching reading in the content area can be improved by evaluating the difficulty of the reading materials and the ability of the students to comprehend the materials. The content area books tend to present new materials at a rapid rate. The students are sometimes totally unfamiliar with these terms. This rapid exposure to new knowledge can lead to great levels of frustration (Rubin, 1992). Some strategies such as lecture, rewriting content materials, and keeping-in-class vertical files can help teachers who teach content areas. To accomplish this the terms in these areas must be mastered by the individual student. These skills include: word recognition, word meaning, comprehension, word analysis, reading readiness and special reading skills found in the context of the different subject areas.

Content areas that will have special reading skill requirements are: history, physics, biology, geography, science and music (Nehiley, 1991). The key to improving the instruction in the content area is the teacher. The teacher must be able to think critically, have a good knowledge of the content area, a positive attitude, good verbal skills and high expectations for each and every student (Miller, 1984).

It is imperative for the content area teachers to determine not only the difficulty of reading materials used in their classrooms, but also the ability of students to read these materials. Changes in teaching behaviors and accommodations of materials must be

made to assure that all children have a legitimate opportunity to succeed in learning the content.

Teachers can identify the concepts they deem important and present them in an organized manner that will enable students who have reading problems to better understand the subject content.

Different approaches do not mean that the system abdicates its responsibility to work with students who are having problems in the area of reading. It is not a case of one strategy replacing another. Students will continue to receive instruction that enables them to grow as readers, as well as receiving accommodations in the strategies that are used to teach them content. All content teachers need to be teachers of reading, not in the developmental sense where specialized training would be required, but in a way that uses varied approaches to help students with reading problems learn content.

Teachers must use assessment systems that relate to an application of the reading process to contain domain and these systems should focus on the students' ability to apply learning strategies that he has learned. Several assessment methods have been developed to include the integration of skills and attitudes and the use of collaborative learning practices.

An assumption that enjoys widespread credibility is that reading proficiency increases and develops commensurate with the demonstration of successful content acquisition. The reading process is to help students acquire content skills and apply them to "real" reading. An assessment system should focus on students ability to apply learning strategies across the content areas.

Content reading assessment practitioners must place major emphasis on measuring students "acquisition skills," that is the strategies across the content areas.

Content-area reading assessment is the process of measuring how students acquire information as well as what major tenets of knowledge they possess.

Reading increases the students' awareness of the environment and its demands. Cartoons and drawings are suggested ways to improve content reading. Humor makes the materials more interesting and less threatening. Motivating students to a positive self-concept and self-confidence results in an increase in reading comprehension.

Reading in the content area requires thought, objectivity, planning and patience on the part of the content area teachers. It demands attention, thought and motivation on the part of the students.

Eartha James

Content Area Activities

Reading Jeopardy

Purpose: To reinforce facts about the story. (Comprehension)

Description:

The teacher will have categories such as detail, sequence, main event, etc. listed on the board. Under each category the teacher will have questions ranging in value from $10.00 to $50.00. The harder the question the more it is worth. Divide the class into three teams. Allow each team to choose a name. Write the name for each team on the board in order to keep score. Have three bells on a table or flat surface. Allow one member from each team to come to the table and choose one team to be first. The first person on that team gets to pick a category and amount first. Then read the question, The first person to ring their bell gets to answer. If correct that team gets the specified amount of money. If an incorrect answer is given then another player of the three may ring their bell and attempt to answer. The team who answers the question correctly gets to pick the category and amount next. Once a question has been answered correctly then the next player from the other two teams comes to the bells. The team with the most money when time is called wins.

Reading Feud

Purpose: To reinforce knowledge of vocabulary, its meaning and facts about the story.

Description:

The teacher will supply two bells needed to play the game. Divide the class into two teams. One player from each team comes up to the bell and put their hands behind their backs. When the teacher calls out a question about the story, word to be spelled, word to be defined, or word to be used in context the student who rings their bell first gets to answer. If correct answer is given that team gets a point (score to be kept by the teacher on the board). If an incorrect answer is given the other player gets the opportunity to answer… If no correct answer is given put the question back into the stack and call for the next member from each team. The team with the most points when time is up wins.

Pass The Stick

Purpose: To reinforce events in the story, vocabulary and its meaning.

Description:

Divide the class into two teams. Let the teams choose a name. Write their names on the board in order to keep score. Line teams up in two rows facing each other. The teacher will start the game by calling out a question or vocabulary word related to the story and handing the stick (pencil or ruler) to a student. The student with the stick must answer. If correct that team scores one point and that student gets to hand off the stick to a member of the other team to answer the next question. If an incorrect answer is given the other team gets the point, and the teacher passes the stick to a person on the opposite team to answer the next question. The team with the most points at the end of the game or when time is called by the teacher wins.

Stacey Griffin

Reading Comprehension

Reading and reading comprehension are two different terms, yet they are closely related. It would be difficult to make distinction between the two. Reading is defined as getting meaning from the printed symbols. Reading comprehension is defined as the "process of constructing meaning by relating ideas from a text to one's prior knowledge and background" (Cooper, 1997, 18). Reading does not occur without comprehension. The reader must understand what is being read to complete the reading process (Savage, 1994).

The major elements in the reader's ability to construct meaning are prior knowledge and background. Constructing meaning is a personal process. Each reader will develop his or her own meanings from any text that is read. The teacher must develop a program that incorporates instructional procedures that activate and relate to the backgrounds of students and to what they read (Cooper, 1997).

Students should be given the opportunity to respond to what they read. Response activities help the teacher determine whether comprehension or understanding is taking pace when students read. Responding is an action that happens during or after reading or listening. Students can respond in many ways. The classroom sets the tone that promotes and supports response activities (Cooper, 1997).

Some activities that promote responding to literature are journals, response charts and group discussions. Group discussions should include teacher-directed and student-generated questions. During the instructional process teachers should remember that comprehension involves offering students direct help in using their reading strategies, prior knowledge, and thinking abilities In building meaning from the text (Savage, 1994).

Comprehension Activities

Tips On Questioning:

Some important and useful general suggestions for using questions as part of reading instruction:

1. Use questions for purposes other than assessment. Questions should guide, rather than merely check children's understanding of what they read.
2. Ask higher-level (critical-creative) questions, since these questions stimulate thinking.
3. Use lower-level (literal) questions to make connections to higher level ones.
4. Allow a wide range of acceptable answers, not just one right or wrong answer, in response to higher level questions.
5. Use different types of questions for diagnostic purposes; (i.e. to determine if students can recognize cause-effect or sequential relationships.
6. Ask questions before reading to set a purpose for comprehension.
7. Plan questions before starting the discussion for a story.
8. Have pupils formulate their own questions as they read.

Patricia Martin

Comprehension Activities

K-W-L

K-W-L is a structured teaching technique for helping pupils access prior knowledge as part of reading lessons. K-W-L involves three steps:

1. K - Assessing What I Know. This step involves brainstorming and categorizing ideas related to the topic of a reading selection. The teacher notes pupils' ideas on the chalkboard or on a chart.

2. W - What Do I Want to Learn? Based on what pupils already know, the teacher provokes questions on what they might want to learn. Pupils then read the selection.

3. L - What I Learned. As pupils finish reading, they note what they learned about a topic and list questions that still need to be addressed.

Patricia Martin

Comprehension Activities

Sentence Comprehension:

The teacher can focus on comprehension of sentence units by such activities as:

- locating key sentences and having students discuss the meaning of these sentences.
- having students determine the deep structure of a sentence by identifying sentences with the same meaning in sets like:

  There was a mouse in Keith's motel room. Keith knew about mice in motel rooms. A mouse was in the motel room where Keith stayed.
- having students change the structural patterns of sentences; for example, having them change sentences from active voice (Keith saw the mouse.) to the passive voice (The mouse was seen by Keith.)
- having students break long and difficult sentences apart, especially sentences with relative clauses that add multiple elements of meaning into a sentence.
- having pupils rephrase sentences in their own words.

Each of these activities focuses on the pupil's ability to understand language at the sentence level. (These sentences are based on the content of Beverly Cleary's delightful fantasy, The Mouse on the Motorcycle.)

Patricia Martin

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Emmett Betts

Emmett Betts received a B.S. Degree (1925) from Des Moines University and M.S. (1928) and Ph.D. (1931) Degrees from the University of Iowa.

He began his career as a school vocational director and then as a school psychologist and elementary principal. At the State Teachers' College in Oswego, New York, he was director of teacher education, summer sessions, and the reading clinic. He went to Pennsylvania State College as a research professor of education and director of the reading clinic. He moved to Temple University in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, where he was professor of psychology and director of the reading clinic. He later opened the Betts Reading Clinic in Haverford, Pennsylvania, which he directed until 1966. He then moved to the University of Miami as research professor of education and lecturer in psychology.

Betts was highly active in workshops dealing with vision and reading at more than forty colleges and universities. He served as a consultant to public schools and other educational groups throughout the United States.

Bett's books include the following: Prevention and Correction of Reading Difficulties, Visual Problems of School Children, Index to Professional Publications on Reading and Related Topics, Foundations of Reading Instruction (This book is considered a classic in the field of reading textbooks.), and How to Teach Reading. Collectively, he published more than five hundred works, including more than three hundred articles in professional journals on reading and vision.

He assumed leadership roles and offices in over twenty professional organizations. He was founder of The International Council for the Improvement of Reading Instruction, later known as The International Reading Association.

Betts was an advocate of instructing reading based on the reading levels and needs of children as opposed to a static curriculum. Many reading specialists have

and are currently using his informal reading inventories for establishing reading levels and needs. His extensive experience with vision and reading allowed him to pioneer visual screening procedures that were used in clinics and schools. His honors include: The Apollo Award of the American Optometric Association, Citation of Merit and Founders Award of the International Reading Association, and The Gold Medal Award of Education.

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Kathryn Tyler

Guy L. Bond

Guy L. Bond was born on May 4, 1904 in Coupeville, Washington. He was educated at Western Washington State College and the Universities of Alabama and Columbia. He obtained both Master's and Doctorate degrees. He married Fredericka Hoffa and they had two daughters.

Guy L. Bond was the Professor of Education at State College, Fredonia, New York, 1936-37 and at the University of Minnesota from 1937. He was a visiting lecturer for Columbia University in 1940 and 1951. He belonged to the National Education Association, Social Study Education, Phi Delta Kappa and Kappa Delta Pi. His areas of work and/or study were reading, elementary education, curriculum and educational psychology.

He published: Teaching the Child to Read, Developmental Reading in High School (Macmillan), The Diagnosis and Treatment of Learning Difficulties (Appleton-Century-Crofts), Child Growth in Reading (Lyons and Carnahan), Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Correction (Appleton-Century-Crofts), and Living Literature Series (Macmillan). He also published a Developmental Reading Series and a Developmental Science Series (Lyons and Carnahan). He contributed to the National Society for the Study of Education Yearbook. One of his books, Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Correction (1996), is now in its sixth edition. This book is a good resource for the correction of reading problems.

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Patricia Martin

Theodore William Clymer

Theodore Clymer was born in St. Paul, Minnesota, on April 2, 1927. His parents are Theodore Frederick and Annette Clymer. Young Theodore was married to Lois Brandt in 1947 and they had two children. He served in the U.S. Navy from 1945 to 1946. After that, he started his education. He attended two schools, Wisconsin State College and the University of Minnesota. He received a Ph.D. in 1952.

Clymer was subsequently employed by his alma mater, the University of Minnesota. In 1959 he was promoted to the position of professor of Elementary Education and Educational Psychology. He was very active in educational organizations. His contributions were recognized by Wisconsin State College when they presented him with a Distinguished Alumnus Award.

Clymer was an effective and influential writer, educator, and researcher. His main area of interest was reading research. He also wrote many books for children and was involved in the development of several reading materials and aids. His most influential work involved phonetic rules. His research identified a considerably smaller list of rules than was generally agreed upon. His shorter list was effective in helping children learn to read quicker and easier. His rules are essential to reading skills and occur with high frequency. Thus, he identified an efficient, pragmatic method of phonics instruction having a higher probability of success.

Clymer offered an excellent invalidation of group intelligence tests in 1952. He proved that children with reading problems cannot be accurately measured for IQ with tests requiring reading. The children he used in the study had much higher IQs as measured by individual intelligence tests. This debunked a common, invalid method employed in that time period.

Clymer's accomplishments speak for themselves. He was active in many areas of reading. He developed techniques for effective instruction and many materials. His

research also examined the effectiveness of several existing instructional methods and materials. Further, he offered excellent criticisms of reading research techniques.

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Sir John Plumfield

Edward W. Dolch

Edward William Dolch was born August 4, 1889, in St. Louis, Missouri. His parents were Edward William and Ida Catherine Dolch. He married Marguerite Pierce in 1915, and she became his partner in writing children's books such as the "Basic Vocabulary" series.

Dolch received his B.A. at Washington University at St. Louis, Missouri, his M.A. at the University of Wisconsin, and his Ph.D. at the University of Illinois. It was at the University of Illinois that Dolch began writing articles for education journals, and he published his thesis Reading and Word Meanings, two years after receiving his doctorate in 1925.

It was also during this time that instructors at the University of Illinois began referring their remedial students to Dolch. While working with these slow readers, Dolch discovered that knowledge of a core of common vocabulary words greatly helped these individuals. From seven years of research in this area, Dolch devised "The Dolch 220 Basic Sight Service Words" for which he is best known.

Dolch was an educator and wrote numerous books for both adults and children using the Dolch basic vocabulary. He was an assistant professor during 1918-1919 at the University of Wisconsin and a professor of education at the University of Illinois for the years 1924-1954. He was a

member of the American Research Association, the Illinois Association of Supervisors and Directors of Education, and the National Council on Research in Elementary English. His work, The Psychology and Teaching of Reading, was recognized as one of the best education books of the year in 1931.

In his numerous writings, Dolch produced both scholarly works and works for children. His wife, Mauguerite Pierce Dolch, coauthored and illustrated many of the children's stories. His works in the field of education include A Manual for Remedial Reading, Helping Handicapped Children in School, and Problems in Reading.

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Marilyn Kay Douglas

Dr. Roger Farr

The world of academia has several heroes: heroes who have launched innovative practices or dedicated their life to helping students and professionals succeed. Dr. Roger Farr is one of those heroes. He received a Bachelor's Degree in English Education, a Master's Degree in Secondary English Education, and a Doctorate of Education in Educational Psychology all at from State University of New York.

Dr. Farr has had a broad array of educational experiences. Dr. Farr has taught at various levels including kindergarten through graduate school. He is now the Director of the Center for Reading and Language studies at Indiana University. As of printing of this book, he was the current recipient of the prestigious Chancellor Professor award at Indiana University.

Dr. Farr is a well-known author of reading materials. He has written books to improve the reader and evaluate their progress. He also serves as a special consultant on assessment and measurements for Harcourt Brace School Publishers. Dr. Farr has written numerous assessment instruments including standardized and performance based tests. Two tests which are utilized nationwide are the *Iowa Silent Reading Test* and the *Metropolitan achievement Test.* He also wrote the *Language Arts Performance Assessments.*

The community has not allowed his accomplishments to go unnoticed. Dr. Farr was honored in 1984 by the International Reading Association (IRA) with the William S. Gray citation for outstanding lifetime contributions to the teaching of reading. In that

same year he was elected to the IRA Hall of Fame. In 1988 he was selected as the IRA's Outstanding Reading Educator.

The former president of the IRA has his own home page at Indiana University. On his page he keeps helpful instructional material for the reading teacher and maintains a brief vitae. He is committed to the educational growth of the student and the correct interpretation of what reading encompass. Dr. Farr once told a group of reading teachers at Northeast Louisiana University that there is no reading without comprehension.

Online at *www.indiana.edu*

Shon Joseph

Arthur Irving Gates

Arthur Irving Gates was born in Red Wing, Minnesota on September 22, 1890. His father was William P. Gates, and his mother was Lenore (Gaylord) Gates. On August 14, 1920 Gates married Georgina Strickland. And, conclusively on August 24, 1972 in Montrose, New York Arthur Irving Gates died. In order to summarize Gates' contributions to education, this biography touches on his educational background, career, accomplishments and honors.

Gates received a B.L. in 1914 from the University of California at Berkeley. From the University of California he also received his M.A. in 1915. From there he began a teaching assistantship in experimental psychology at Columbia University. While at Columbia, Gates earned in 1917 a Ph. D. degree in psychology.

Continuing on into his career, Gates remained at Columbia as a member of the faculty from 1917 to 1956. During his time at Columbia, he was director of the Institute for Educational Research from 1921 to 1930. He also served as head of the department of educational research in the advanced school of education from 1933 to 1937, executive officer of the department of psychology and research methods from 1933 to 1956, and director of the foundations of the education division from 1948 to 1956. Even after Gates' retirement in 1956, he was supervisor of research in the Institute of the Language Arts.

Gates accomplished several published materials in the area of reading and psychology. His bibliography includes approximately three hundred books and articles. Among his accomplishments were books such as: Psychology for Students of Education (1923), The Improvement of Reading (1927), New Methods of Primary Reading (1928), Elementary Principles of Education (1929), Interest and Ability in Reading (1930), Reading for Public School Administrators (1931), Improvement of Reading (1936), Spelling Difficulties (1937), Educational Psychology (1942), and Teaching Reading to Slow Learning Pupils (1943).

Gates was honored with medals and citations from several organizations, including

the International Reading Association (1961), the American Educational Research Association (1964), Phi Delta Kappa (1964), the American Psychological Association (1967), Teachers College, Columbia University (1968), and the World Congress on Language Arts (1968). In addition, he served as president of the American Association for Educational Research (1942), and the education section of the Council of the American Psychological Association (1948-1949). He was also a member of the American Association for Advancement of Science.

Gates was recognized as being able to turn theory into practice and to make his findings applicable to classroom situations. He was one of the pioneers for supplying a factual foundation for reading instruction. He is remembered and honored still today for his work in creating the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test. Researchers from all over utilize this achievement test still today in order to come up with comprehensible data in which they may draw conclusions on their area of interest.

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Sarah L. Sandidge

Dr. Kenneth Goodman

Kenneth S. Goodman was born in Chicago, Illinois on December 23, 1927. He received both his A. B. in 1949 and his Ed. D. in elementary education in 1963 from the University of California, in Los Angeles. His M. A. degree was obtained in what was then California State College, Los Angeles in 1953. During that time, Goodman was an elementary school teacher in Los Angeles, for a while was a social worker from 1953 to 1961, then became Associate Professor of elementary education at Wayne State University from 1962 to 1975.

In 1963, Ken Goodman became a consultant for the State Department of Education in Hawaii lecturing on oral language development. In 1967, he became a consultant for the Ford Foundation Ministry of Education in Chile as a reading professor. He accepted the position as Professor of Elementary Education at the University of Arizona, Tucson in 1975.

Some of the professional organizations Goodman has been active with are the National Council of Teachers of English, International Reading Association (President from 1981-82), National Conference of Researchers of English (President 1971-72), National Institute of Education, and the Center for Expansion of Language and Thinking (1973-76). Professor Goodman has also received many other honors and awards, including the David Russell Award for Outstanding Research in English.

Some of the articles Professor Goodman has published included "Reading: a Psycholinguistic Guessing Game" (1967), "Choosing Materials to Teach Reading" (1968), "Psycholinguistics and the Teaching of Reading" (1969), "Let's Dump the Uptight Model in English" (1969), "Analysis of Oral Reading Miscues: Applied

Psycholinguistics" (1969), "Language and Thinking in the Elementary School" (1970), "Dialect Barriers Revisited" (1973), "Miscue Analysis: Application to Instruction" (1976), and "Look What They've Done to Judy Blume! The Basalization of Children's Literature" (1988).

Goodman has edited or co-authored the following text books: Elementary Education Instruction: Foundation in Education (2nd edition) published by Wiley in 1967, Reading Unlimited published by Scott Foresman in 1975, Language and Thinking in School published by Holt (2nd edition) in 1975, Learning About Psycholinguistic Processes by Analyzing Oral Reading published by Harvard University in 1977, and the Collected Works, Language and Literacy Volumes I and II published by Routledge & Kegan of London in 1982.

After conducting extensive psycholinguistic research, Goodman (Norton, 1993, 39) uses the following principles as a basis for his theory of instruction, which he relates to reading:

1. Meaning must always be the immediate, as well as the ultimate, goal of reading.
2. Language systems are interdependent, so language cannot be divided into words for instructional purposes.
3. Children learning to read their native language must be competent language users.
4. Children find it easier to read language that is meaningful and natural to them.
5. Children must learn strategies for predicting, sampling, and selecting information; guessing, confirming, or rejecting guesses; correcting; and reprocessing.
6. Children need special reading strategies for reading special forms of language.
7. Readers must be able to relate their reading experiences to real experiences.

Goodman's psycholinguistic theory stresses that uninterrupted reading is important in order for students to discover strategies for gaining meaning. They obtain

meaning from word usage in sentence context, not from sounds of words or isolated words. The students use the grammatical support and meaning cueing to predict appropriate words.

Ken Goodman has made many dramatic contributions in the area of language arts. It is in this regard that he is often referred to as the "guru" of whole language.

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Betty Bond

William S. Gray, Jr.

William S. Gray, Jr. was heavily involved in all aspects of the fields of reading and education. He was a prolific writer who applied the scientific method to the study of these areas. He was the first president of the International Reading Association (IRA) and he organized their first Annual Convention. His contributions to the study of reading and education are so numerous that he is often referred to as "Mr. Reading."

W. S. Gray, Jr. viewed education as a means by which one can improve oneself and one's situation. His family background instilled in him a strong work ethic, a need to be actively involved, and the values and principles that have shaped his character. In fact his family history exemplifies the "American dream."

W. S. Gray, Jr.'s great-grandparents, Isaac and Sarah, moved from England to the United States in the 1830s. They settled in a rural county in Illinois where they raised livestock. Both Isaac and Sarah were actively involved in church and civic functions. They played a large role in establishing the first schools in that area. Their oldest son, Richard, was also very involved in the community. He and his wife had four sons, one of which was William S. Gray, Sr.

W. S. Gray, Sr. pursued a career in education. He attended college and returned home, where he taught school for thirty years. He served on the Board of Education and the State Educational Commission. He also served as State Senator. He was a staunch supporter and defend of education and he argued for the funding of state normal schools. His interests were not limited to education. He was also highly involved with the church and pursued business interests as well. In 1879 A. S. Gray, Sr. married Annie Gilland. They had four children; William S. Gray, Jr. was the third child, born in 1885.

William S. Gray, Jr. attended the local elementary and highschool. It was noted that he had to walk four miles, one-way and sometimes in the snow, to get to high school. Nothing was mentioned about whether he was barefoot and had to walk uphill both ways. He completed the high school requirements in three years. Following high school, from

1904 to 1908, Gray taught school in his home county. Gray noticed that reading was taught in a very mechanical way; that is, students merely practiced by reading aloud. Gray felt incompetent as a reading teacher and this sparked an interest in the field.

Gray attended Illinois State Normal University (ISNU) from 1908 to 1910. This was a revolutionary time in the study of reading and education. During this time Gray was exposed to the Herbartian movement, which proposed a new, more active approach to educational instruction. They argued that children should be presented with problems to solve and projects to complete rather than learn through rote memorization. Exposure to the Herbartian movement greatly influenced Gray's view and approach to the study of reading and education.

Following ISNU Gray attended the University of Chicago where he obtained a Bachelor's degree under the direction and influence of Charles Judd. In 1914 he received a Master's degree from Columbia University where he studied under Thorndike, Dewey, and McMurry. By 1915 he became an Instructor at the University of Chicago and began work on his Ph. D. He was promoted to Assistant Dean of the College of Education and received his Ph. D. in 1916. Gray was at the center of one of the leading universities in the study of reading and education.

Gray's accomplishments and contributions to the fields of education and reading are far too numerous to provide adequate discussion here. Thus, in the interest of brevity a few will be listed summarily.

In 1915 Gray developed the Standard Oral Reading Paragraphs. This was the most commonly used oral reading test for grades first through eighth until 1963 when the Gray Oral Reading Tests were published. The latter tests are still used today. He also developed the Standardized Oral Reading Check Tests in 1923. These standardized tests provided much utility in diagnosis and as an objective measure for school surveys.

Gray participated in many school surveys. The main objective of these surveys was to evaluate teaching methods and instructional materials to determine if modifications in procedure were warranted.

One of Gray's research interests was in determining the components of reading. This was an interest that developed early in his career and culminated in the development of Gray's Model of Reading. This model of reading consisted of four parts. These include word perception, comprehension, reaction to what is read, and fusion of new ideas with old ideas.

In 1922 Gray, in collaboration with colleagues, published Remedial Cases in Reading: Their Diagnosis and Treatment. This book provided case examples of a variety of reading problems, remedial instruction, and the progress achieved by the students. Gray advocated that remedial instruction be tailored to the individual needs of the student. This study had an enormous impact and was the impetus for the establishment of reading clinics.

Gray's expertise in reading and education was also called on outside of the United States. He evaluated instructional methods and materials and proposed modifications of programs in Puerto Rico and Egypt. The largest international study was conducted for UNESCO. The study took four years to complete and was published in 1956. The study "reviewed current world literacy programs, evaluated their strengths and weaknesses, and collated teaching methods and materials , with special attention to providing guidance to underdeveloped areas of the world" (p. 39).

Gray also published summaries of current research in education and reading. In 1925 he published a journal of 436 summaries. By 1931 these summaries were published annually in the "Summary of Reading Investigations." Gray was also a member of the committee that produced the Twentieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. He also authored a chapter for this edition. Thereafter, he chaired the committee for the Twenty-fourth, Thirty-sixth, and Forty-seventh Yearbooks, as well as contributed to the content.

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Ms. Giddy Gaddy

Albert Josiah Harris

Widely known for co-authoring the much used Harris-Jacobson Word List, Albert Harris had great influence and received much recognition for his work in the educational field, especially in regard to reading.

Albert Harris was born in Chelsea, Massachusetts on August 13, 1908. He attended and graduated Magna Cum Laude from Harvard University in 1928. He received his M.A. and PH.D. in 1930 from this same university. During this same year, he married Edith Fread of New York City. He and his wife had two daughters, Rona Carol and Charlotte Louise.

Harris' teaching experience includes serving as an instructor of Pyschology at Purdue University from 1930-1931 and instructor at Simmons College from 1931-1934. He was an assistant psychologist at Worcester State Hospital from 1934-1935. Holding many other positions through the years, Harris became Professor Emeritus at City University of New York in 1968.

During his working years, Albert Harris became interested in reading instruction. He was particularly interested in the diagnosis and correction of reading disability and developmental reading in the elementary school. This led him to author the book, How to Increase Reading Ability in 1940 as well as Effective Teaching of Reading in 1962. He served as co-author of the MacMillan Reading Program in 1965. Harris also created the Harris Tests of Lateral Dominance, a measure of intelligence, personality, and aptitudes. Articles written by Harris can be found in "The Reading Teacher", "Reading Research Quarterly", and "The Journal of Research and Development in Education".

Other accomplishments include being a former president of the International Reading Association (IRA) from 1957-1958, being inducted in ther Reading Hall of Fame and being listed in Who's Who Among American Men in Science.

Harris retired to West Palm Beach, Florida where he lived until his death.

Leaders in Education: A Biographical Directory. (1948). Pennsylvania: The Science Press.

Edith Downs

Dr. John J. Pikulski

Dr. John J. Pikulski, a professor of Education at the University of Delaware, is the President of the International Reading Association for 1997-98. He is also past vice-president and a former member of the board of the International Reading Association. He served on the Editorial Advisory Boards of The Reading Teacher, Reading Research and Instruction, and the Journal of Reading Behavior.

Dr. Pikulski is also the author and/or co-author of many books including but not limited to The Diagnosis, Correction and Prevention of Reading Disabilities, and Houghton Mifflin Reading programs. "Preventing Reading Problems", an article written by Dr. Pikulski, discusses characteristics common to successful early intervention programs. Dr.Pikulski (1996) stated in the conclusion of the above mentioned article "Every child has the right to develop into a thoughtful competent reader."

Presently he is conducting research with a focus on early reading curriculum development; the evaluation of reading skills; and early intervention procedures for preventing reading problems.

Dr. Pikulski will be a speaker at the Northeast Louisiana in October, 1997.

Reference:

online at: http://www.eduplace.com/rdg/res/prevent.html

Stacey Griffin

Romalda Spalding

Romalda Spalding earned a Master's Degree from Columbia University and attended a summer course at Harvard. She continued to search for help in teaching students who found it difficult to learn our language.

Her search ended in 1938, when Mrs. Spalding was assigned to teach the sixth grades, but was approached by the superintendent and principal and asked to tutor a child in a lower level under the supervision of Dr. Orton. She agreed and Dr. Orton immediately gave her a list of 70 phonograms, single letters and combinations of two, three, and four letters that represent 45 English sounds. After given this list, Mrs. Spalding explained that for the first time, she now understood that our written vocabulary represents the sounds we say in words. Dr. Orton's directions for solving a problem when it is presented was to divide it into its component parts, build them sequentially and then talk about each part individually. After attending a workshop at the New York Academy of Medicine, Romalda learned that the method of teaching determines which pathways develop in the brain. She then applied this knowledge to teaching phonics.

Every phonetic language develops from speech, to letters which represent speech sounds, and then to words and sentences. With a good phonic system, the student says the sound he hears, writes the letter or letters which represent it, and sees these letters as he reads the sounds.

Mrs. Spalding applied this knowledge to older students and realized that the techniques that worked so well with that child having the most difficulty also prevented problems from developing in other children in her classes.

In 1957, The Writing Road to Reading was first published as a method for the classroom teaching of speech, writing, and reading designed to prevent, or overcome children's language problems. There are five essential components of this method: philosophy, phonics, writing, comprehension of words and passages, and literacy appreciation.

Now consider how The Writing Road to Reading incorporates eminent principles of learning and instruction into each component of the program. To describe each of the seven mental processes and how The Writing Road to Reading provides direct, systematic, multisensory instruction in each process, the instructional time spent on each process varies with the nature and level of disability.

Peoria Unified School District adopted the book because it improved students' reading and language achievement and self esteem; because it was a literature-based program that instills in students a love for reading and writing; because it integrated instruction in handwriting, decoding, spelling, writing, and reading for efficient use of teacher and student time; and because it could be used successfully as a classroom and a resource room program.

In June, 1941, Mrs. Spalding's formal work with Dr. Orton ended when World War II called her husband first to Boston and then to Hawaii, where she continued her work. Following duty with the Navy and some years as a successful architect, Mr. Spalding retired to help her write a book, commenting, "We cannot hope to continue having a democratic republic if we do not teach more of our youth to speak, write, and read better." (Riggs, On-line) But Mrs. Spalding credits Dr. Orton for making it possible.

Without Dr. Orton's pioneering, many more people would have doors closed to them because one on one had taught them to speak precisely, write legibly and correctly, and read with accuracy and understanding.

Reference:

[On-line at http://www.riggsinst.org/~riggs/radl.htm]

Eartha James

Dolch Basic Sight Word List

Preprimer	Primer	First Grade	Second Grade	Third Grade
1. a	1. all	1. after	1. always	1. about
2. and	2. am	2. again	2. around	2. better
3. away	3. are	3. an	3. because	3. bring
4. big	4. at	4. any	4. been	4. carry
5. blue	5. ate	5. as	5. before	5. clean
6. can	6. be	6. ask	6. best	6. cut
7. come	7. black	7. by	7. both	7. done
8. down	8. brown	8. could	8. buy	8. draw
9. find	9. but	9. every	9. call	9. drink
10. for	10. came	10. fly	10. cold	10. eight
11. funny	11. did	11. from	11. does	11. fall
12. go	12. do	12. give	12. don't	12. far
13. help	13. eat	13. going	13. fast	13. full
14. here	14. four	14. had	14. first	14. got
15. I	15. get	15. has	15. five	15. grow
16. in	16. good	16. her	16. found	16. hold
17. is	17. have	17. him	17. gave	17. hot
18. it	18. he	18. his	18. goes	18. hurt
19. jump	19. into	19. how	19. green	19. if
20. little	20. like	20. just	20. its	20. keep
21. look	21. must	21. know	21. made	21. kind
22. make	22. new	22. let	22. many	22. laugh
23. me	23. no	23. live	23. off	23. light
24. my	24. now	24. may	24. or	24. long
25. not	25. on	25. of	25. pull	25. much
26. one	26. our	26. old	26. read	26. myself
27. play	27. out	27. once	27. right	27. never
28. red	28. please	28. open	28. sing	28. only
29. run	29. pretty	29. over	29. sit	29. own
30. said	30. ran	30. put	30. sleep	30. pick
31. see	31. ride	31. round	31. tell	31. seven
32. the	32. saw	32. some	32. their	32. shall
33. three	33. say	33. stop	33. these	33. show
34. to	34. she	34. take	34. those	34. six
35. two	35. so	35. thank	35. upon	35. small
36. up	36. soon	36. them	36. us	36. start
37. we	37. that	37. then	37. use	37. ten
38. where	38. there	38. think	38. very	38. today
39. yellow	39. they	39. walk	39. wash	39. together
40. you	40. this	40. were	40. which	40. try
	41. too	41. when	41. why	41. warm
	42. under		42. wish	
	43. want		43. work	
	44. was		44. would	
	45. well		45. write	
	46. went		46. your	
	47. what			
	48. white			
	49. who			
	50. will			
	51. with			
	52. yes			

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106. READABILITY GRAPH

The NEW Reading Teacher's Book of Lists, © 1985 Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632. By E. Fry, D. Fountoukidis, and J. Polk.

The Readability Graph is included on the next page so you will have it on hand when you need it. Use it to help judge the difficulty level of the materials your students use so that you can better match reading selections to students' reading abilities.

1. Randomly select three sample passages and count out exactly 100 words beginning with the beginning of a sentence. Count proper nouns, initializations, and numerals.

2. Count the number of sentences in the hundred words estimating length of the fraction of the last sentence to the nearest 1/10th.

3. Count the total number of syllables in the 100-word passage. If you don't have a hand counter available, an easy way is to put a mark above every syllable over one in each word, and then when you get to the end of the passage, count the number of marks and add 100. Small calculators also can be used as counters by pushing numeral "1", then push the "+" sign for each word or syllable when counting.

4. Enter graph with *average* sentence length and *average* number of syllables; plot a dot where the two lines intersect. The area where a dot is plotted will give you the approximate grade level.

5. If a great deal of variability is found in syllable count or sentence count, putting more samples into the average is desirable.

6. A word is defined as a group of symbols with a space on either side; thus, "Joe," "IRA," "1945," and "&" are each one word.

7. A *syllable* is defined as a phonetic syllable. Generally, there are as many syllables as vowel sounds. For example, *stopped* is one syllable and *wanted* is two syllables. When counting syllables for numerals and initializations, count one syllable for each symbol. For example, *1945* is four syllables, and *IRA* is three syllables, and & is one syllable.

EXAMPLE:

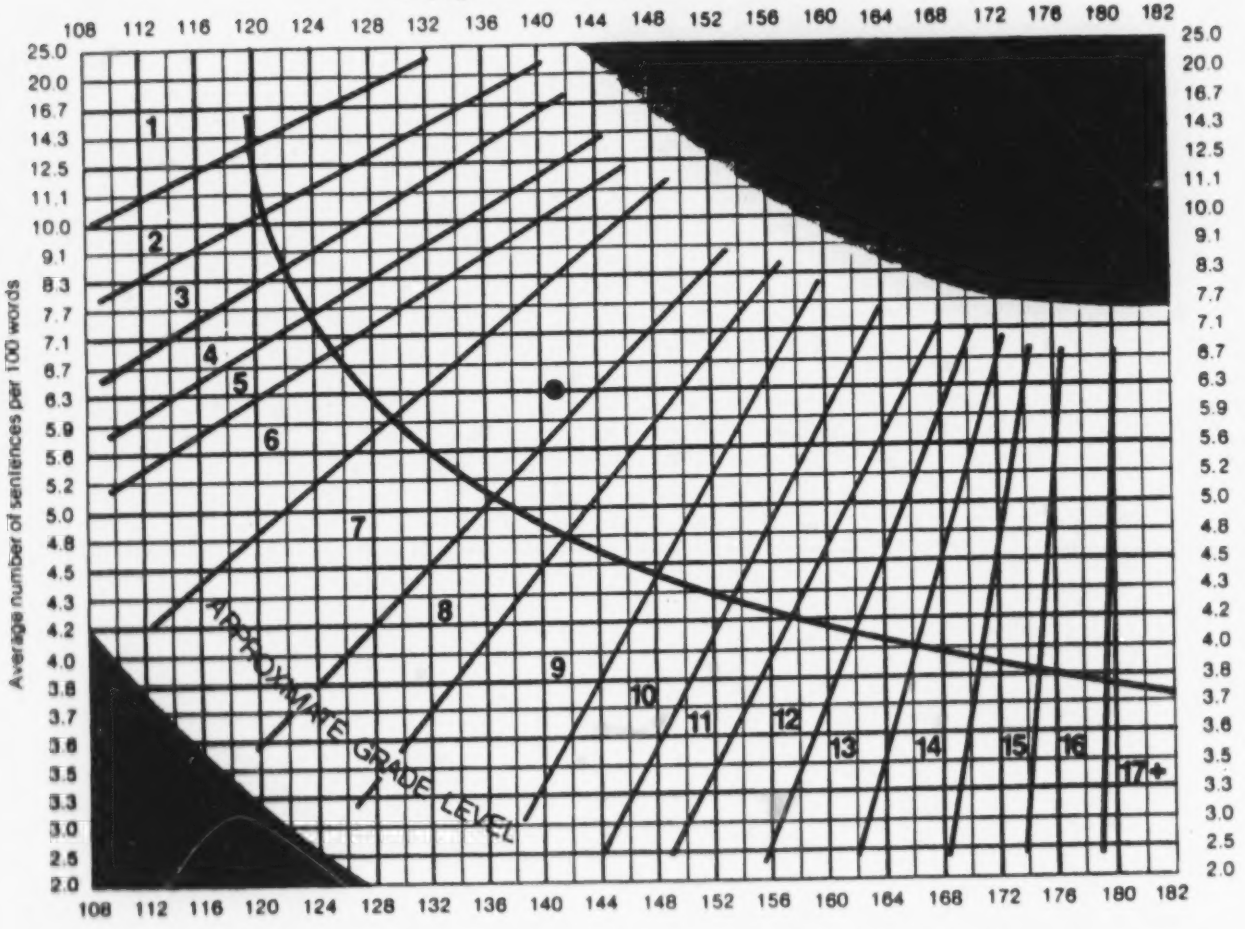
	Syllables	*Sentences*
1st Hundred Words	124	6.6
2nd Hundred Words	141	5.5
3rd Hundred Words	158	6.8
AVERAGE	141	6.3

READABILITY 7th GRADE (see dot plotted on graph)

See Also List 108, Writeability Checklist.

GRAPH FOR ESTIMATING READABILITY —EXTENDED

by Edward Fry, Rutgers University Reading Center, New Brunswick, N J. 08904



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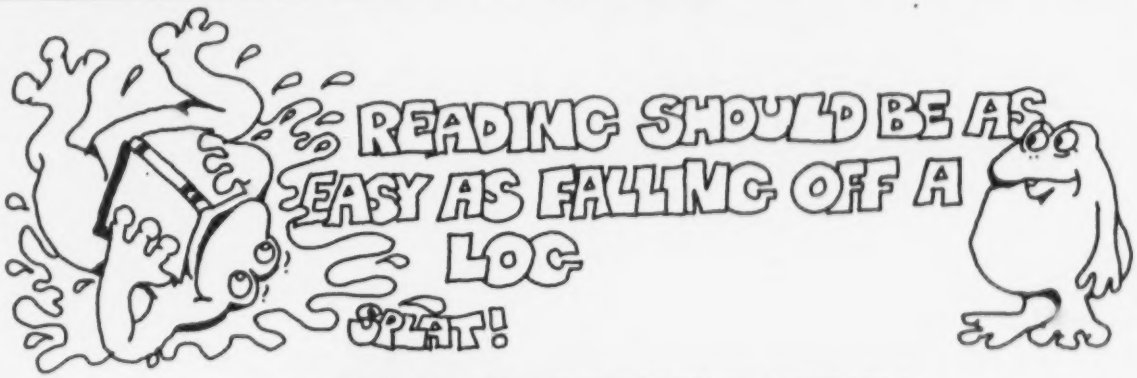
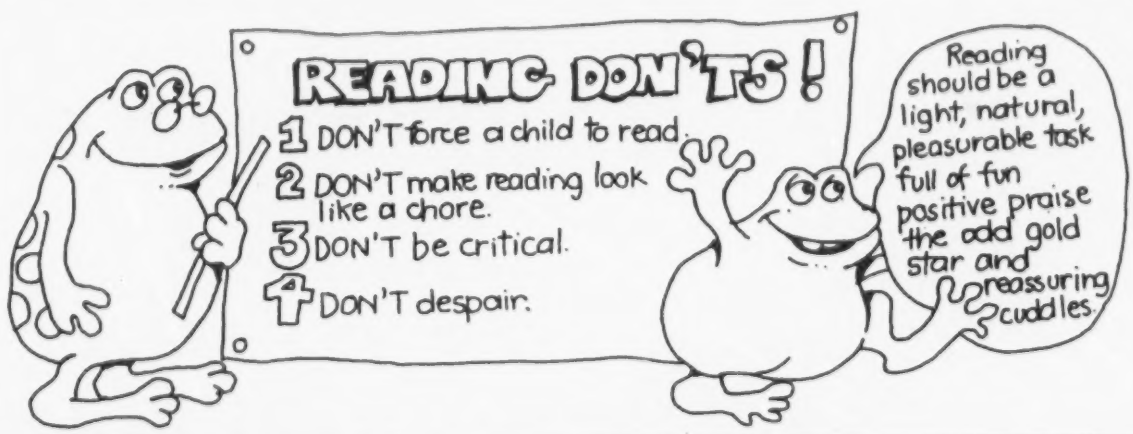
READING HELP AT HOME



IDEAS TO PLAY WITH:

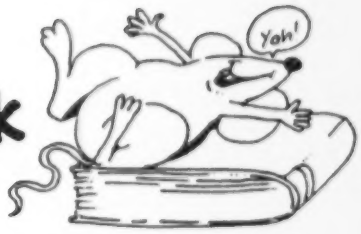
(Or at least as much fun to do!)

1. Take your child to the local library. Join the library yourself. If your child sees you reading for pleasure, he/she could get the idea that reading is a fun thing to do.
2. Read a story to your child once a week or more.
3. Put a half hour aside every weekend. Insist all the family sit down and read something. Make it a treat. Supply drinks and something good to nibble on as extra incentive.
4. Cook something with your child. Read the recipe together.
5. Read the TV program guide with your child. Discuss the options.
6. Share a newspaper item with your child if you know it's about something he/she is interested in.
7. Going shopping? Read the signs along the road together, the notices in the supermarket, the labels on the packets. Give your child a simple list of things to look for.
8. Help your child write a letter to Grandma, Santa Claus or a TV hero. Reading and writing go hand in glove.
9. Practice reading a simple story together. Next time someone your child admires comes to visit, get them to read the story to the visitor.
10. Play a board game like Chutes and Ladders with your child. Often these games have lots of fun things to read written on the board.


READING DON'TS!
1 DON'T force a child to read.
2 DON'T make reading look like a chore.
3 DON'T be critical.
4 DON'T despair.
Reading should be a light, natural, pleasurable task full of fun positive praise the odd gold star and reassuring cuddles.

Photocopy this note for parents.

For a better Book Week



1 Ask the children to give oral book reviews. Two or three children at a time is enough. Make sure they have the book with them and be prepared to guide their 'ramblings'! Encourage conciseness. Let the class decide which book looks best and read it to them later that day.

2 Which was the children's favorite book by the end of the week? Read it again. Put it on display.

3 Visit the local library. Arrange to be there for any planned, Book Week celebrations. Failing this, arrange for the librarian to read the children a story.

4 Ask a professional storyteller to visit the school during Book Week.

5 Ask the local repertory-theatre to present a production at school.

6 Yes, there's always the Book Week fancy-dress parade. Children dress as favorite characters. Have an award ready for the most original costume.

7 See if you can borrow children's books written in other languages — some Asian story-books are exquisite. If the Asian Mum can come and read an extract from it, or translate it, wonderful! Make similar books of your own

8 Create a Big Book story about a Big Book. Let the children's imaginations run riot! Perhaps the Big Book was a library bully, spat out its words, scribbled over its pictures, refused to be read. What happened to it after it snapped shut on someone's fingers?

9 Teach a Book Week song. Make it up!
Books are magical
Books are fun
Books make good friends
For everyone!
Chant it, dance it, clap it, tap it!

10 Read a different type of story each day — animal, fairy-tale, adventure, legend, humorous, sad etc.

11 Story writing — write a book for a pig, a witch, Superman, the teacher, your puppy etc.

12 Make a display of factual books. Place captions beside them.

13 Make a book of book-care rules.

Books hate dog-ears.
Books hate dirt! etc.

Paste an elastoplast on the book's 'head'.

14 Make bookmarks; covers to protect library books; personal scrapbooks of favorite things etc.

15 The ultimate for those living in a major city — visit a publishing company!

16 Write letters to your favorite author.

17 Trade and exchange comics, secondhand books, etc.

18 Donate a book to the library.

A REFERENCE OF TESTS FOR READING CONSULTANTS

Achievement Tests

Gates, Arthur I. and MacGinitie, Walter H. Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test: The Riverside Publishing Company.

Greene, H.A., Jorgensen, A.N., and Kelley, V.H. Iowa Silent Reading Test: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc.

Durost, Walter N., Bixler, Harold H., Wrightstone, J. Wayne, Prescott, George A., and Balow, Irving H. Metropolitan Achievement Test-Fourth Edition: The Psychological Corporation.

Mental Ability

Slosson, Richard L., Nicholson, Charles L., and Hebpshman, Terry H. Slosson Intelligence Test: Slosson Educational Publications, Inc.

Thorndike, R.L., Hagen, E.P., and Sattler, J.M. Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale: The Riverside Publishing Company.

Dunn, Lloyd M., Dunn, Leota M., Robertson, Gary J., and Eisenberg, Jay L. Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test-Revised: American Guidance Clinic.

Wechsler, David. Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Third Edition: The Psychological Corporation.

Diagnostic

Weidorholt, J. Lee and Bryant, Brian. Gray Oral Reading Test, Third Edition: PRO-ED, Inc.

Gilmore, John V. and Gilmore, Eunice C. Gilmore Oral Reading Test: Harcourt, Brace and Jovanovich, Inc.

Spache, George D. Diagnostic Reading Scales, Revised Edition: CTB/McGraw Hill.

Other

Koppitz, Elizabeth M. The Bender Gestalt Test for Young Children: Grune and Stratton, Inc.

Brigance, Albert H. Brigance Preschool Screen: Curriculum Associates.

For Further Test Information:

Kramer, J. J., and Conoley, J. C. (1992). The eleventh mental measurements yearbook. Lincoln, NB: University of Nebraska Press.

Professional Reference Library

The Reading Teacher

American Reading Instruction

Reading Teacher's Book Of Lists

Professional Reading Materials

Direct Instruction Reading. Douglas Carnine, Jerry Silbert and Edward J.Kameenui, Merril(Prentice Hall).

Getting Reading Right From The Start. Elfrieda H. Heibert and Barbara M. Taylor, Allyn and Bacon.

Reading For Success In Elementary Schools . Earl H.Cheek, Jr., Rona Flippo and Jimmy D Lindsey, Brown and Benchmark.

Teacher's Kaleidoscope Of Raeding Materials. Harry Miller, CindyThompson and Dona Holloway, Northeast Louisiana University Graphic Services.